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# The answer to Woodall's musquash problem

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## Abstract

We prove that there are no  $n$ -agonal musquashes for  $n$  even with  $n \neq 6$ . This resolves a problem raised in Woodall's 1971 paper 'Thrackles and Deadlock'. © 1999 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

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A classic problem in graph theory is to draw a graph in the plane with as few crossings as possible. By comparison, a *thrackle* is an unconventional concept, conceived some 40 years ago by John H. Conway; a thrackle is a drawing in which each pair of edges meets precisely once, either at a vertex or at a proper crossing (for recent work on thrackles, see [5]). In the late 1960s, the notion of a *musquash* appeared in Douglas R. Woodall's work on Conway's thrackle conjecture; a musquash is a thrackle of the  $n$ -gon with cyclic symmetry. Musquashes are known to exist for  $n$  odd and for  $n = 6$ , but do not exist for  $n = 10$  nor for  $n$  a multiple of 4. Woodall's paper [6] concluded with the problem: "For which  $n$ ,  $n$  even, does there exist an  $n$ -agonal musquash?" We prove

**Theorem.** *There are no  $n$ -agonal musquashes for  $n$  even with  $n \neq 6$ .*

To be precise, recall that an  $n$ -agonal musquash  $\mathcal{M}$  is a planar  $n$ -gon, with  $n \geq 5$ , whose successive edges  $e_1, \dots, e_n$  are smooth curves without self-intersection such that:

(a) all intersections between the edges of  $\mathcal{M}$  are normal (i.e., transverse) and occur outside the vertex set of  $\mathcal{M}$ ,

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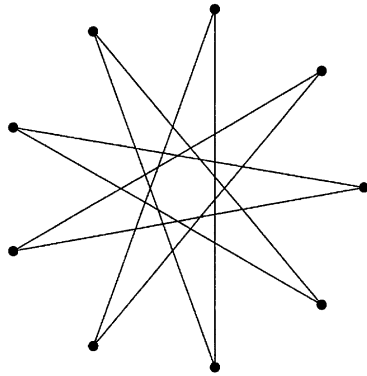


Fig. 1. Example of a 9-agonal musquash.

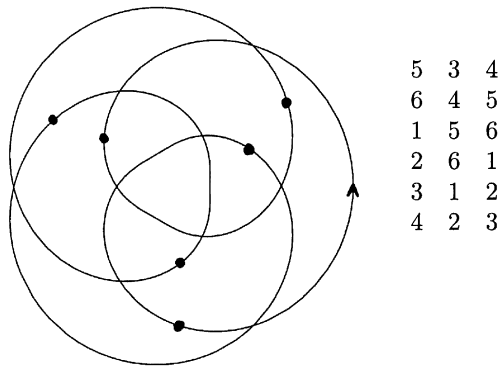


Fig. 2. A 6-agonal musquash.

- (b) there are no intersections between any pair of consecutive edges,
- (c) each edge intersects each of the remaining possible  $n - 3$  edges precisely once,
- (d) if  $e_1$  intersects edges in the following order:  $e_{k_1}, \dots, e_{k_{n-3}}$ , then for all  $i = 2, \dots, n$ , edge  $e_i$  intersects edges in the following order:  $e_{k_1+i-1}, \dots, e_{k_{n-3}+i-1}$ , where the edge subscripts are computed modulo  $n$ .

An example of a 6-agonal musquash is given in Fig. 2 which also gives its intersection table: row  $i$  gives the sequence of edges met by  $e_i$ . Notice that the table is determined by its top row. Conversely, each permutation of the ordered set  $\{3, \dots, n-1\}$  is the top row of a table corresponding to a drawing, on some surface, having the properties (a)–(d) above. For example, there is an  $n$ -agonal musquash for all  $n$  odd, given by the table with top row:

$$n - 2, n - 4, \dots, 5, 3, n - 1, n - 3, \dots, 6, 4.$$

In order to decide whether a given table is a musquash (i.e., can be realized by a curve *in the plane*), one can use Kuratowski’s theorem. A quicker way is to use the table to write the ‘Gauss word’ of the associated curve and then use [3] or [1,2]. However,

since there are  $(n-3)!$  tables, neither method is a practical means of proving the existence or non-existence of musquashes for large  $n$ .

**Proof of the Theorem.** Suppose that  $\mathcal{M}$  is an  $n$ -agonal musquash, where  $n = 2m$  and  $m$  is an odd integer. By stereographic projection, we lift  $\mathcal{M}$  to the 2-sphere  $S^2$ . We begin by studying the symmetry of  $\mathcal{M}$ . First, for each  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , let  $\phi_i$  be the unique homeomorphism from  $e_i$  to  $e_{i+1}$  which preserves orientation, sends intersection points to intersection points, and with respect to the natural arc-length parameter, is an affine transformation on each of the connected components of the complement of the set of intersection points in  $e_i$ . Notice that because of condition (d) in the definition of a musquash, there is a well-defined homeomorphism  $\phi$  of  $\mathcal{M}$  such that  $\phi_i = \phi|_{e_i}$  for each  $i$ . Obviously  $\phi$  is periodic with period  $n$ .

**Lemma 1.**  $\phi$  extends to a homeomorphism  $\Phi$ , of period  $n$ , of the sphere  $S^2$ .

**Proof.** Notice that  $\mathcal{M}$  forms the 1-skeleton of a 2-cell decomposition  $\mathcal{S}$  of  $S^2$ . The faces of  $\mathcal{S}$  are simply connected, and so each face  $F_i$  is homeomorphic to a regular planar polygon  $P_i$ ; to fix ideas, use the regular polygons whose vertices are the  $k$ th roots of unity, for appropriate  $k$ . Moreover, choose the homeomorphisms  $\psi_i: F_i \rightarrow P_i$  so that the end points and intersection points of each edge in  $\mathcal{M}$  are sent to the vertices of  $P_i$  and such that the restriction of  $\psi_i^{-1}$  to each edge of  $P_i$  is an affine map. The map  $\phi$  defines a bijection of the set of faces of  $\mathcal{S}$ , and if  $F_i$  is sent to  $F_j$ , then in fact  $P_i = P_j$  and we can set  $\Phi|_{F_i} = \psi_j^{-1} \circ \psi_i$ . By construction,  $\Phi$  agrees with  $\phi$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 2.**  $\Phi$  is orientation reversing.

**Proof.** Consider the 2-cell decomposition  $\mathcal{S}$  of  $S^2$  determined by  $\mathcal{M}$ . Let  $V$  (resp.  $E$ , resp.  $F$ ) denote the number of vertices (resp. edges, resp. faces) in  $\mathcal{S}$ . The Euler characteristic of  $S^2$  is  $V - E + F = 2$ . In the case at hand,  $E = 2V = 2m(2m-3)$ . Hence

$$F = 2 + m(2m-3). \quad (1)$$

Now assume that  $\Phi$  is orientation preserving. By Eilenberg's theorem [4],  $\Phi$  is conjugate to a rotation of order  $n = 2m$ . In particular,  $\Phi$  has exactly two fixed points. Consider the action of  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  induced by  $\Phi$  on the set of faces of  $\mathcal{S}$ . Notice that this action leaves two faces invariant and acts freely on the other faces; indeed, if for some integer  $i$ , the  $i$ th iterate  $\Phi^i$  preserves a face,  $F_i$  say, then by Brouwer's fixed point theorem,  $F_i$  contains a fixed point of  $\Phi^i$ , and hence either  $\Phi^i = \text{id}$  or  $F_i$  contains a fixed point of  $\Phi$ . It follows from the stabilizer-orbit theorem that

$$F = 2 + 2mk, \quad (2)$$

for some integer  $k$ . Finally notice that (1) and (2) are contradictory, since (1) implies that  $F$  is odd, as  $m$  is odd, while (2) implies that  $F$  is even.  $\square$

Recall that the intersections on the edges  $e_i$  can be given a positive or negative sign as follows: if  $e_i$  intersects  $e_j$ , then this is a positive (resp. negative) intersection if as

Table 1

−5	3	4
6	−4	−5
−1	5	6
2	−6	−1
−3	1	2
4	−2	−3

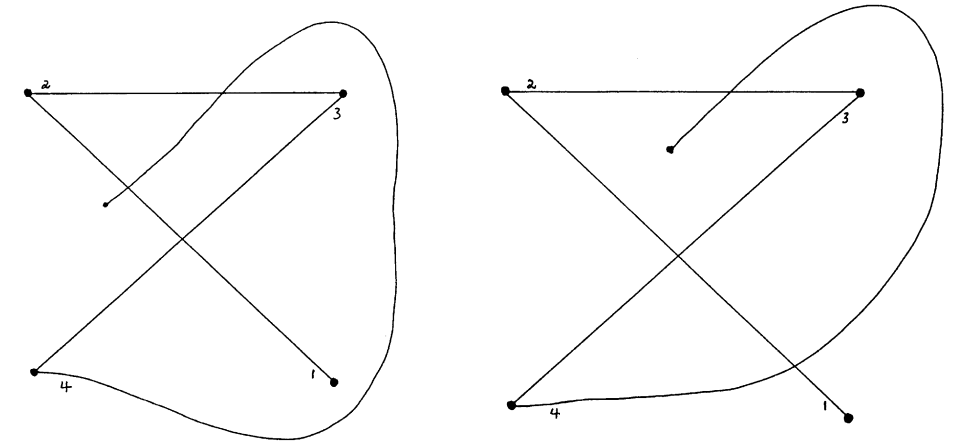


Fig. 3.  $-3 \prec -4$  and  $4 \prec -3$ .

one passes along  $e_i$ , the curve  $e_j$  crosses  $e_i$  from left to right (resp. right to left). For example, Table 1 gives the intersection table with signs, for the musquash of Fig. 2. Notice that for an arbitrary musquash  $\mathcal{M}$ , with  $n$  even, Lemma 2 implies that the signs alternate down each of the columns of its intersection table.

We now investigate what happens when we try to draw the musquash  $\mathcal{M}$  edge by edge, starting with  $e_1$ . Let  $\mathcal{M}_k$  denote the drawing of the first  $k$  edges of  $\mathcal{M}$ . We will consider all the possibilities for  $\mathcal{M}_k$  for  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 7$ . We do this sequentially; for a possible drawing of  $\mathcal{M}_i$ , we consider all the possibilities for  $\mathcal{M}_{i+1}$  that are allowed when  $e_{i+1}$  is drawn. The first consideration occurs with the intersection between  $e_3$  and  $e_1$  in  $M_3$ . The only choice here is that in row 1 of the intersection table, one could have  $+3$  or  $-3$ . In fact, by applying the antipodal map of  $S^2$  if necessary, we may restrict our attention to the  $-3$  case. When we draw in  $e_4$  there are, a priori, 4 possibilities:  $-3 \prec 4$ ,  $-3 \prec -4$ ,  $4 \prec -3$  or  $-4 \prec -3$ , where  $a \prec b$  means that  $a$  precedes  $b$  in row 1. However, as the intersection of  $e_1$  with  $e_3$  is negative, the intersection  $e_2$  with  $e_4$  must be positive, by the previous paragraph. It follows that the cases  $-3 \prec 4$  and  $-4 \prec -3$  are impossible. Drawings of the possible cases  $-3 \prec -4$  and  $4 \prec -3$  are given in Fig. 3. Notice that if  $\mathcal{M}$  has  $-3 \prec -4$ , then retracing  $\mathcal{M}$  in the opposite direction, starting at the end of edge  $e_4$  of  $\mathcal{M}$ , one obtains a new musquash  $\mathcal{M}'$  with  $4 \prec -3$ . So it suffices to consider the case  $4 \prec -3$ . Now consider all possible ways of drawing in edges  $e_5, e_6, e_7$ , assuming  $4 \prec -3$ . One easily finds that there are only 3

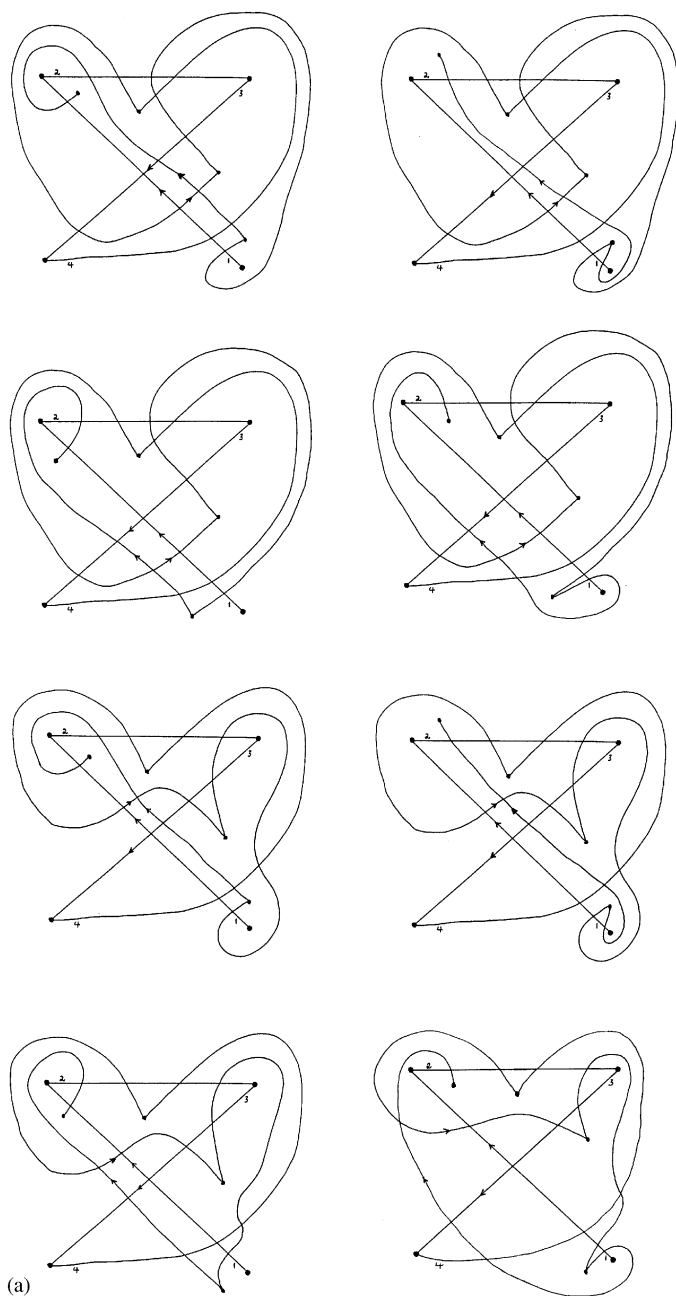
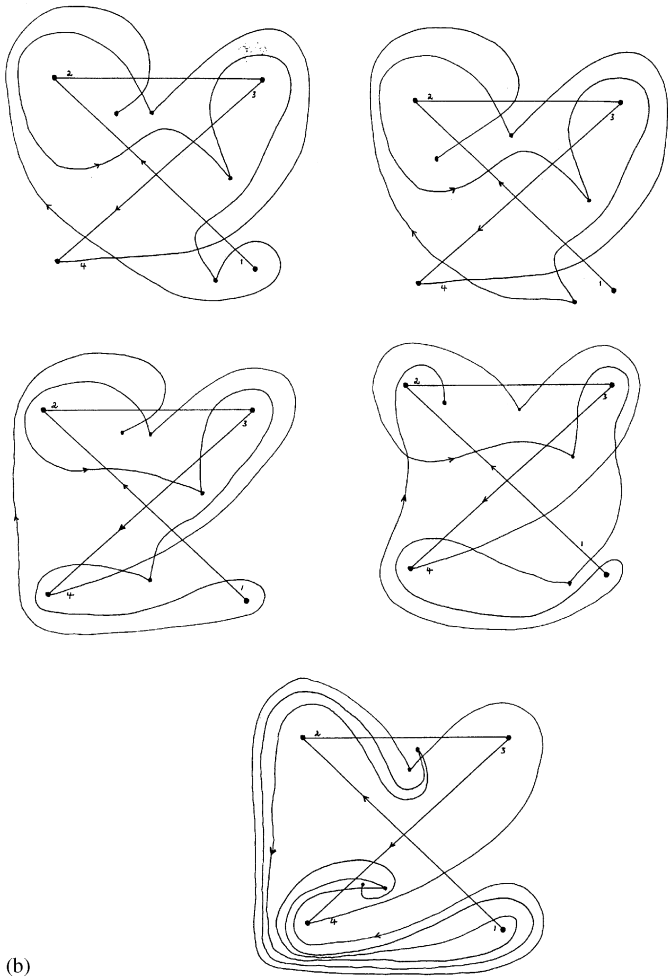


Fig. 4.



(b)

Fig. 4. (Contd.).

ways of drawing  $e_5$  (bearing in mind that one is working on  $S^2$  rather than the plane), 6 ways of drawing  $e_6$  and altogether, 13 ways of drawing  $e_7$ ; a sketch of each of the 13 cases is given in Fig. 4.

Returning to the symmetry  $\Phi$ , consider the homeomorphism  $\Phi^2 = \Phi \circ \Phi$ . By Eilenberg’s theorem,  $\Phi^2$  is conjugate to a rotation of order  $m$ . In particular,  $\Phi^2$  has exactly two fixed points,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  say.

Notice that  $\Phi$  interchanges the points  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . Indeed,  $\Phi(x_1)$  and  $\Phi(x_2)$  are fixed points of  $\Phi^2$  and so  $\Phi$  either interchanges  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , or  $\Phi$  fixes  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . In the latter case, since the fixed point set of  $\Phi$  is a subset of the fixed point set of  $\Phi^2$ ,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  would be the only fixed points of  $\Phi$ , and in particular,  $\Phi$  would have isolated fixed points, which is impossible for an orientation reversing homeomorphism of  $S^2$ .

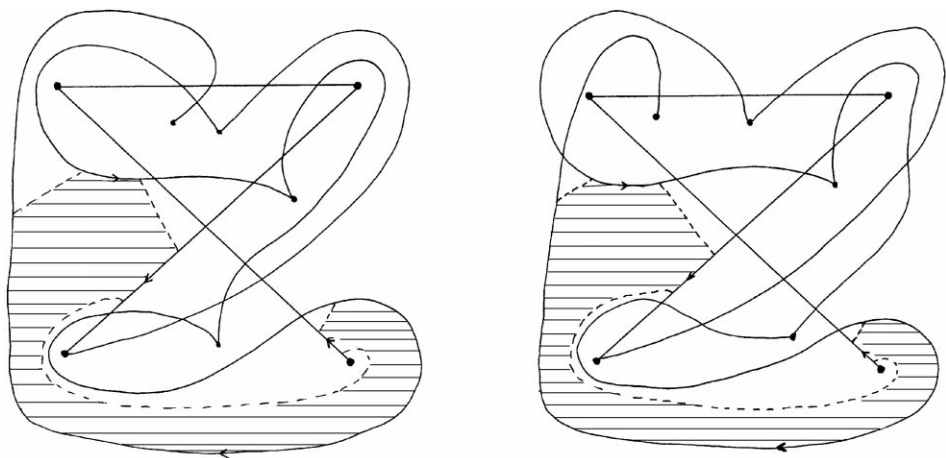


Fig. 5.

Consider the faces  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  of  $\mathcal{S}$  containing  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , respectively. From the above,  $\Phi$  interchanges  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ , while  $\Phi^2$  preserves both  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ . Notice that if an edge  $e_i$  is incident with the boundary of  $F_1$ , then from the definition of  $\Phi$ , the edges  $e_{i+k}$  are all incident with the boundary of  $F_1$  (resp.  $F_2$ ), for  $k$  even (resp. for  $k$  odd), where the edge subscripts are computed modulo  $n$ . In particular,  $e_1$  is necessarily incident with the boundary of one of the faces, say  $F_1$ , and thus  $e_k$  is incident with the boundary of  $F_1$  for all  $k$  odd. So, as one travels around the boundary of  $F_1$ , one encounters segments of the edges  $e_1, e_3, e_5$ , etc., but not necessarily in this order. Moreover, and this is the decisive point, since  $\Phi$  preserves the orientation of  $\mathcal{M}$ , the edges  $e_1, e_3, e_5, e_7$ , all have the same orientation in the boundary of  $F_1$ .

Now consider the diagrams in Fig. 4. From the above considerations, if one of these diagrams could be completed to form an  $n$ -agonal musquash, then in that diagram the face  $F_1$  must appear as a polygonal region whose boundary contains segments of the edges  $e_1, e_3, e_5, e_7$  with the same orientation. Cutting off some of the corners of  $F_1$ , we obtain an octagon  $\mathcal{O}$ , 4 of whose edges are segments of the edges  $e_1, e_3, e_5, e_7$  with the same orientation, and  $\mathcal{O}$  has no other contact with  $\mathcal{M}$ . For each diagram in Fig. 4, there is a small finite number of ways of drawing an octagon such that 4 of its edges are segments of  $e_1, e_3, e_5, e_7$ . However, one easily verifies that there are only two cases where it is possible to draw an octagon such that the edges  $e_1, e_3, e_5, e_7$  all have the same orientation; they are shown in Fig. 5. There are several ways to eliminate these final two cases. Perhaps the easiest way is to examine the face  $F_2$  containing the other fixed point  $x_2$ . Notice that in each of the cases at hand, there is a unique way to draw in  $e_8$  (see Fig. 6), and it is easy to see that no face contains an octagon for which four of its edges are segments of the edges  $e_2, e_4, e_6, e_8$  with the same orientation. This completes the proof of the theorem.

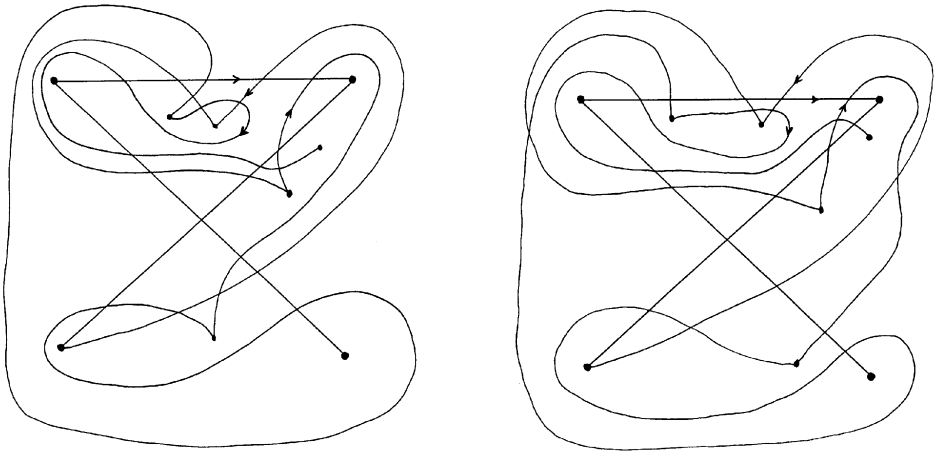


Fig. 6.

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